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ABSTRACT

Teachers who are trained in Consistency Management and who use its principles in the classroom can facilitate improvement in student academic achievement. The Consistency Management Program, consisting of school and classroom management strategies integrated with instructional methods, seems to provide the conditions for learning to occur. Five geographically diverse schools with the common characteristics of large portions of minority students, low socioeconomic status student backgrounds, and high student mobility, participated in the Consistency Management teacher training program. When tested by the Texas Education Assessment of Minimal Skills, students from the five program schools showed a 17 percent increase in passing, while nonprogram students showed a 2 percent decline in passing. The teacher training on Metropolitan Achievement Tests improved student achievement by 12 percent in language arts and mathematics, 8 percent in social studies and science, and 4 percent in reading. Further, each of the five schools reduced time spent on disciplining students. Follow-up interviews with 19 teachers and the five schools' principals highlighted the Consistency Management Program, whose success supports the desirability of ongoing inservice programs and whose training provided teachers with a clear plan for discipline through the entire school. Data tables are appended. (37 references) (KM)

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TURNING AROUND AT-RISK SCHOOLS

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NOTE: This paper would not have been possible without the absolute dedication and belief by the teachers and principals of the five schools, and by the central administration that all students can excel.

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Introduction

This paper presents a description of an instructional management system called Consistency Management and its implementation in five urban elementary schools in Texas. The five schools were identified in 1986 by the Texas Education Agency as ranking in the lowest 5 percent of all elementary schools taking the state mandated Texas Education Assessment of Minimal Skills (TEAMS).

An analysis of the program indicates that the five schools significantly improved their TEAMS test scores from 1985-86 to the 1987-1988 school year in mathematics, reading and writing. When compared to a matched set of elementary schools, the Consistency Management schools increased 17 percent in the percent passing the TEAMS while the non-program schools decreased 2 percent in the percent passing during the 1987-1988 school year. When the students of teachers trained in the Consistency Management were compared with students of untrained teachers, based on the Metropolitan Achievement Tests (MAT6) and the TEAMS, the program (experimental) group scored significantly higher beyond the $p < .01$ level in total language, total reading, social studies, science and total mathematics and in mathematics and writing on the TEAMS. Additionally, discipline referrals were reduced and a series of structured interviews of the five principals and nineteen teachers indicated that the program had direct transfer to the classroom.

This study seems to support the pioneering works of Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, and Weisenbaker (1979); Brookover and Lezotte (1977); Edmonds (1979a, 1979b, 1979c); Goodlad (1983a, 1983b); Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston, and Smith (1979); Murnane (1975); Summers and Wolfe (1975); Stallings and Mohlman (1981); Levine and Stark (1982); Edmonds and Frederiksen (1978); and Wynne (1980) who establish that schools can make a difference in academic achievement regardless of

socio-economic status. This was given substantial support from several syntheses and reviews of school-level impact on students' academic achievement (Benbow, 1980; Bridge, Judd, & Moock, 1979; Centra & Potter, 1980; Edmonds, 1979c; Glassman & Biniaminov, 1981; Good & Brophy, 1986; MacKenzie, 1983).

This study disaggregated the school achievement data to determine the influence of training on teachers who were inserviced in the program against those teachers from matched schools who were not trained in this specific program but recieved other similar services form the district. Qualitative data derived from structured interviews of principals and teachers from the five schools provides a better understanding of the results and the issues faced by principals, teachers and their students.

School Demographics

The five elementary schools are being called Washington, Adams, Jefferson, Madison and Monroe for the purpose of anonymity. The five schools provide a unique mix of student and teacher characteristics (See Appendix A Tables 1 & 2). The schools had three primary commonalities: 1) the students were from minority groups (94 percent), 2) the students were from low socio-economic backgrounds (83 percent were on free or reduced lunch), and 3) student mobility was twice the average of the highest performing elementary schools in the district. The student populations of three schools were exclusively Black, one was Hispanic and Black and one was Hispanic, Black and Asian. Geographically the schools are diverse. Only two of the schools (Jefferson and Madison) were from the same district area in the city. The percentage of new teachers varied from school to school. For example, Adams Elementary school had 60 percent of the teachers in their first, second or third year of teaching while Monroe elementary school had 58 percent of the teachers with

eleven or more years teaching experience. The district average is 47 percent with eleven or more years teaching experience.

Consistency Management

The Consistency Management program (Freiberg, 1983), was used as the intervention in each of the five schools. Consistency Management was the name given to the program which translated research in classroom management, instructional effectiveness, school climate, school effectiveness and staff development into practical classroom and school applications (see Emmer & Evertson, 1981; Kounin, 1970; Doyle, 1986; Cohen, 1983; Freiberg, in press; Murnane, 1975; Stallings & Mohlman, 1981; Teddlie, Stringfield, & Desselle, 1985; Good & Brophy, 1986; Lightfoot, 1983; Freiberg, Driscoll & Knight, 1987; Freiberg, Buckley & Townsend, 1983). Each of the five schools reduced the time spent on disciplining students. Adams Elementary School, with 276 students, had the lowest enrollment of the five schools and had the most problems in discipline. In 1986, 109 of the 276 students were sent to the office for disciplinary action, 34 students had warning notices sent home and 24 students were suspended. In the 1987-1988 school year 19 students were sent to the office for disciplinary reasons. Ten of the nineteen referrals were from substitute teachers (see Figure 1). One warning letter was sent home for an after school (on the way home) off-campus fight that was reported to the principal and no students were suspended. It is important to note that the second half of the school year had the highest proportion of misbehaviors. The time period after school holidays and the second half of the year produced greater misbehavior as evident by the increase in referrals after December. This trend, which was evident in all five schools, has implications for staff development programs which target school and classroom management only at the beginning of the year.

Insert Figure 1 about here

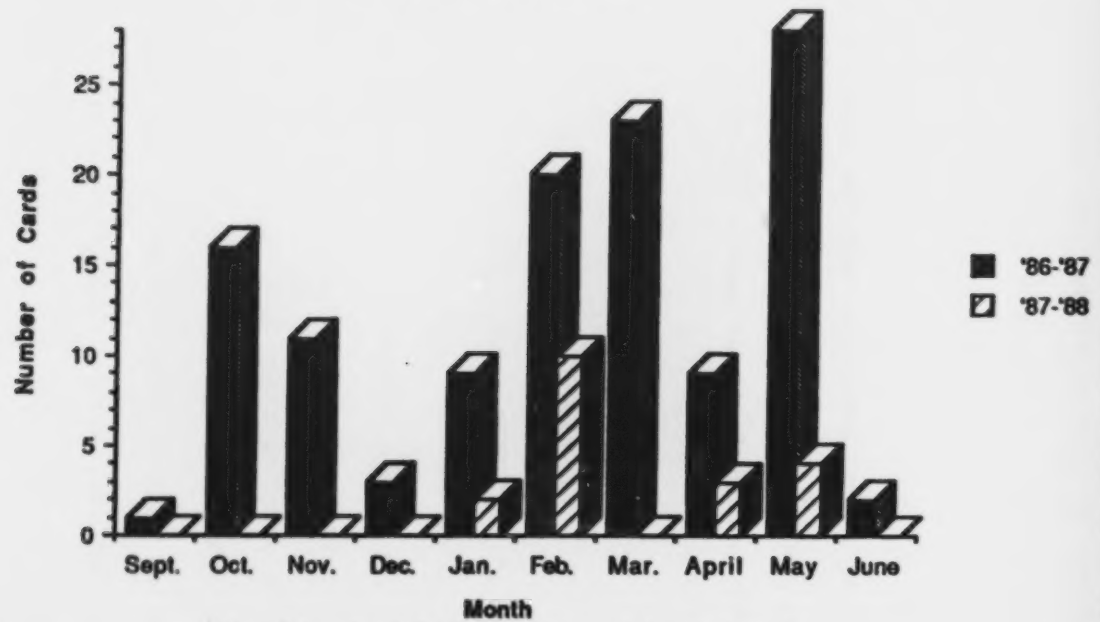
Inservice Frameworks

The training began in April of 1987 with a voluntary all day Saturday workshop. Approximately 50 percent of the teachers and all the principals from the five elementary schools attended. A one hour follow-up session was provided in May at each school site. The teachers proposed a follow-up workshop before school began. Two workshops were provided in August of 1987. The first August session was directed to all new teachers hired over the summer and any teachers who were unable to attend the April session. The second August workshop was for all the teachers and principals. The goal of this workshop was to plan for the opening of school and establish a consistency plan for the year. Over ninety percent of the teachers attended either the April or August workshops. Participation was voluntary for all sessions. The teachers received State approved Advance Academic Training Credit (AAT) which could be used by the teachers for advancement on the Texas Career Ladder.

Six two-hour follow-up workshops were provided at the five school for a total of 30 workshops. Workshops began in September and continued each month until February of 1988. The staff development design was based on previous research on the factors which caused staff development to transfer to the classroom in the same district (see Freiberg, Townsend & Buckley, 1982). Providing the Consistency Management training at the end of the previous year enabled the teachers to test some of the ideas with their current students. Although student and teacher interaction patterns were set by the end of the school year, teachers indicated seeing

Figure 1

Adams Elementary
Discipline Case Cards



(Nine of the referrals for 1987-88 were made by substitutes.)

enough of a change in their students in the spring of 1987 to begin planning during the summer for the next school year in September. The before-school workshop in August reviewed and reinforced the previous sessions and focused their attention on the importance of consistency in the classroom and throughout the school. Too often, inservice sessions provided a few days prior to the opening of school present sessions on new curriculum, reading texts, different instructional approaches or organizational procedures that require significant changes in teacher planning and implementation. Few teachers are effectively able to assimilate and implement these new requirements as their attention is being drawn to the opening of school and the influx of new students. The inservice strategy for this program was designed to provide ample time for assimilation (from April to August 1987), opportunities for collegial and administrative interaction (April, May and August sessions), and follow through with additional sessions for the first six months of school (September 1987 to February 1988).

Workshop Content

The April and May 1987 sessions focused on management of time, materials, students as individuals and in groups, discipline prevention strategies, integration of instructional and management strategies, motivation for students and teachers and student incentives. The first August workshop was a repeat of the April session. The second workshop for all faculty and principals from the five schools emphasized planning, organization and maximizing school and classroom climate for the opening of school. The session also proposed a series of strategies for establishing parent contacts, from telephone calls to positive post cards to grade level newsletters. The session was titled "What to do the first days and weeks of school." The follow-up workshops during the year included the following topics:

- Workshop #1 Additional Consistency Management Strategies For Your Management System
- Workshop #2 Levels of Questions, Teacher Expectations and Checking For Understanding
- Workshop #3 Learning From Experience: Analyzing Your Classroom Management and Instruction/Teacher Self Assessment
- Workshop #4 Management Strategies For Cooperative Grouping and Peer Teaching
- Workshop #5 Developing and Managing Instructional Centers: Minimizing Worksheets
- Workshop #6 Interactive Instruction and Student Motivation

The intent of the program was to improve learning by providing a safe and orderly learning environment for students and teachers. The combination of timely staff development, research based management and instructional strategies and team building in each of the five elementary schools seems to have provided significant changes in student achievement and reductions in the need to discipline through preventative strategies.

Research Questions

The study examined the following research questions:

- 1) To what extent did school achievement on the TEAMS test improve for each school pre and post intervention?
- 2) To what extent did aggregate student achievement scores improve or regress across the five schools when compared to a matched control group of five elementary schools who received no training in the Consistency Management program?

- 3) To what extent did the students of teachers trained in the Consistency Management program gain or regress in achievement when compared to a random control sample of teachers and their students in the comparison school who received no training?
- 4) To what extent did the teachers and principals perceive the intervention improving their classroom and school management?
- 5) To what extent did teachers and principals report a reduction in discipline problems?

Achievement Analysis

Method

There were three levels of analyses conducted to investigate the effects of Consistency Management (CM) on student achievement. Level I involved determining whether individual school level achievement improved from 1986 to 1988 (pre-post intervention). Level II investigated whether aggregated student achievement improvement across the five program (CM) schools was different from aggregated student achievement improvement across five comparison schools who received no training in the Consistency Management program. Level III identified the teachers in the program schools who had been trained in Consistency Management and compared the achievement of these teachers' students to the achievement of a random sample of students in the comparison schools.

Instruments

Student test data were obtained on two achievement instruments: the Metropolitan Achievement Tests (MAT6), a nationally standardized, norm-referenced academic

achievement battery; and the Texas Educational Assessment of Minimal Skills (TEAMS), a state developed and mandated, criterion-referenced basic skills battery.

The MAT6 are overall measures of achievement in the five basic content areas of language arts, reading, social studies, science, and mathematics. As nationally normed tests, their content should be representative of the curricula being taught in these content areas in schools across the nation and test performance of students in a school or program can be compared to the performance of typical students of the same age and grade across the nation. The reported KR-20 reliability coefficients for the various batteries of the MAT6 are generally high, ranging from .63 to .98.

The TEAMS tests measure the minimum competencies in mathematics, reading, and writing that are expected to be mastered by all students in specific grades. These minimum competencies were defined by the Texas State Board of Education and were enacted into State law in 1984 under House Bill 72. The domain of knowledge and skills on which TEAMS test items were developed is much narrower and more focused on lower-level thinking processes than the domain on which MAT6 test items were developed. Reliability data have not been reported for the TEAMS.

The MAT6 are administered annually at all grade levels during the spring semester (first administered in 1987) to students in grades one through nine. Test scores for the study were obtained on the five content area batteries (Total Language, Total Reading, Social Studies, Science, and Total Mathematics) for the 1987 and the 1988 administrations for students who were in grades two through five in 1988 in the program (trained in Consistency Management) and non-program groups.

The TEAMS is also administered annually during the spring semester (first administered in 1986) but it is administered only in first, third and fifth grades. Test scores on the three content area subtests (Writing, Reading, and Mathematics) from

1986 and 1988, were obtained for program and non-program students who were in grades three and five in 1988.

Level I Analysis

The official district evaluation of the staff development programs, including the Consistency Management program, which were provided to the five "low performing" schools to help the teachers in these schools improve student achievement, included an analysis of the simple raw change in scale scores on the TEAMS for students with 1986 and 1988 test data. Correlated sample t tests were used to determine whether there was statistically significant improvement in the mean scale score from 1986 to 1988 at each of the tested grades, on each of the subtests, at each program school. (See Appendix A Table 3 for results for each school.)

While all five schools showed statistically significant improvement in test performance on the TEAMS in one or all subtests in one or both grades, this level of analysis should be viewed as a very cursory preliminary investigation. The multiplicity of the t test comparisons without adjusting the overall alpha level simply increases the chances of making a Type I error. More importantly, no comparison was attempted between the program schools' student performance and a comparable set of non-program schools' student performance.

Level II Analysis

In this second level, five schools were selected to serve as a comparison group of schools to the program schools. The comparison schools were matched, as closely as possible, to the five program schools on the following variables (based on 1985-86 data, in which the five program schools were identified as "low achieving" schools): total student enrollment, district administrative area, student ethnic composition,

student mobility and attendance rates, student free/reduced lunch rates, and student achievement (i.e., percent of students above and below grade level as determined by performance on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, administered during the spring of 1986). Table I in Appendix B provides the data regarding these variables for the five paired sets of schools and tables 2 and 3 present the scale scores.

The investigation in this level still focused on basically school level data. In this case a comparison was made between the set of program schools and the set of non-program schools on the difference from 1986 to 1988 in the total percentage of students who passed one or more of the TEAMS subtests. The overall percentage of students who passed the TEAMS increased from 61% to 78% in the program schools, while the percentage of students who passed in the non-program schools decreased from 63% to 61%. (See Appendix B for the individual school percentages). The McNemar test was used to test whether the passing proportions were identical from pre- to posttest within each group. The program group's increase of 17% more students passing was statistically significant ($Z = 14.1, p < .001$), while the decrease of 2% fewer students passing in the non-program schools was also significant ($Z = 5.7, p < .001$).

These results indicated that something was working in the program schools - student achievement on the TEAMS was improving. Thus far, though, we had been looking at only raw change, only at one measure of achievement (a measure that was not necessarily representative of overall student achievement), and only at a global school performance base.

The inclusion of a third level of analysis reflects a growing concern about the lack of stability of achievement as reported by standardized test scores for improving schools. The aggregation of data may mask groups of students who continue to

perform poorly but whose scores are lost in school-wide reporting of achievement (Freiberg, in press).

The research directors of member school districts in the Council of Great City Schools at their annual meetings have expressed continuing concerns about the inconsistencies observed in schools that have made gains in test scores only to regress after a relatively short period of time (Frechtling, 1987). The Level I & II types of analyses described in this paper are acceptable procedures followed by many large school districts with permanent research and evaluation departments. Given the multitude of programs in large urban school districts and the general lack of resources for evaluation, let alone research, completion of Level I and II analyses would be considered more than necessary. Based on the lack of stability of test scores reported nationally for improving schools in other districts school improvement efforts, an additional level of analysis was conducted to examine program effectiveness.

A third level of analysis was conducted to control for pretest effects on posttest performance, to include a broader base academic achievement measure, and to compare the performance of students who had been instructed during the 1987-88 school year by teachers actually trained in Consistency Management to the performance of students who had been instructed by teachers not trained in Consistency Management in the non-program schools.

Level III Analysis

Subjects

Teachers from the five program schools who had attended at least seven hours of Consistency Management training during the spring and/or summer of 1987 were

identified ($n = 137$). Teachers who met the following criteria were then selected from this group. The teachers had to:

1. be a regular classroom teacher (grade 2, 3, 4 or 5),
2. have a readily available computer file identification number, and
3. have completed the 1987-88 school year in the same program school that he/she began the school year.

Twenty-eight teachers met these criteria. Students of these teachers were then identified on the master computer data file.

Students were randomly selected from the five non-program schools according to the grade distribution of the students identified in the program schools (Table I in Appendix C). The total number of students ($n = 335$) sampled from the comparison schools did not exactly equal the total number of students ($n = 364$) included in the study from the program schools because of insufficient numbers of students with complete test data. Students in the two groups were fairly similar as to ethnic breakdown and percent on free/reduced lunch (Table II, Appendix C). These were the only two demographic variables that could be checked readily from the computer file at the individual student level. It should be noted that the comparison schools in which the students were randomly selected were matched for five additional comparable variables.

Procedure

A one-factor (two-level) multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was performed on the five batteries of the MAT6 to determine whether achievement differed between program students (students who were instructed by teachers with Consistency Management training) and non-program students (students who were

instructed by teachers without Consistency Management training). The mean NCE (Normal Curve Equivalent) scores on each of the five MAT6 batteries from the spring 1988 administration, which represented posttest performance, were the set of dependent measures which were adjusted by the set of mean NCE scores from the 1987 administration, which represented the pretest performance. The adjusted posttest mean differences between the groups were analyzed.

The MANCOVA model makes it possible to examine academic achievement holistically, taking into account the correlation in performance across the different content areas. This model also allows for the statistical adjustment of posttest performance by pretest performance.

The following assumptions of the analytical model were tested and met:

1. Linear relationship among the dependent variables
(Bartlett Test of Sphericity = 846.94124, $df = 10$, $p < .001$)
2. Linear relationship between the set of dependent variables and the set of covariates
(Wilks lambda = .19347, $F = 56.88452$, $df = 25, 2557.31$, $p < .001$)
3. Homogeneity of the regression hyperplanes for the covariates for each group; (i.e., there was no pretest by group interaction effect)
(Wilks lambda = .95898, $F = 1.15152$, $df = 25, 2538.73$, $p = .274$)

The assumption of homogeneous variance-covariance matrices between groups was not supported. Greater variability was associated with the non-program group of students. As this group was the smaller of the two groups, the statistical test then becomes a more liberal test (Stevens, 1986). This liberality can be counterbalanced by testing statistical difference at a stricter alpha level (Stevens, 1986). Alpha for this study was set at .01 instead of the more traditional .05 level.

A second one-factor (two-level) multivariate analysis of covariance was performed on the three subtests of the TEAMS test. Mean z-scores (student scale scores on each of the subtests were converted to z-scores within grade level) from the spring 1988 administration (posttest variables) were adjusted by the set of mean z-scores from the spring 1986 administration (pretest covariates). The adjusted posttest means were then analyzed.

All assumptions that were tested were substantiated.

1. Linear relationship among the dependent variables
(Bartlett Test of Sphericity = 167.20875, $df = 3$, $p < .001$)
2. Linear relationship between the set of dependent variables and the set of covariates
(Wilks lambda = .58627, $F = 17.771749$, $df = 9$, 649.96, $p < .001$)
3. Homogeneity of the regression hyperplanes for the covariates for each group; (i.e., there was no pretest by group interaction effect)
(Wilks lambda = .97557, $F = .72936$, $df = 9$, 642.66, $p = .682$)
4. Homogeneity of the dispersion matrices
(Box's M = 14.49899, $F = .67424$, $df = 21$, 271990, $p = .863$)

Results

The results of the multivariate analyses on the MAT6 and TEAMS achievement instruments indicated that statistically significant differences in adjusted posttest means existed between program students and non-program students. In each analysis, the set of adjusted posttest means for students of program teachers was higher than the set of means for students of non-program teachers.

(MAT-6: Wilks lambda = .92776, $F = 10.71428$, $df = 5$, 688, $p < .001$; TEAMS: Wilks lambda = .82880, $F = 18.38451$, $df = 3$, 267, $p < .001$)

The univariate F tests on the individual batteries of the MAT6, indicated that achievement was greater for the program group of students on Total Language ($p <$

.001), Total Reading ($p = .009$), Social Studies ($p < .001$), Science ($p = .007$) and Total Mathematics ($p < .001$). (Table III, Appendix C) .

The subsequent univariate F tests on the individual subtests of the TEAMS indicated that achievement was greater for the program group of students on the Writing subtest ($p < .001$) and on the Mathematics subtest ($p < .001$). No statistical difference existed between the two groups on the Reading subtest ($p = .211$). (Table IV, Appendix C)

The TEAMS tests were used as the basis by the State for identifying the five schools in 1986 as the lowest performing elementary schools in the district and are used by the local media for in-district as well as between-district comparisons for student achievement. Given the lack of available reliability and validity data on the TEAMS, the MAT-6 data in comparison represents truer measures of academic performance; and, therefore, one may have greater confidence in the analysis of these data.

Discussion

There were a variety of programs directed toward students and teachers in the five schools. Sorting through each program and trying to determine its particular effect on student achievement is a difficult task given the interrelationship among activities within a school. One of the principals clarified this issue when she stated "the Consistency Management program was the glue which held the other programs together." The other principals concurred with this assessment.

The results of these analyses provide preliminary support to the premise that teachers who are trained in Consistency Management and utilize the principles in the classroom can facilitate improvement in student academic achievement.

There are, of course, limitations to this study, as there are with any study in a natural school environment. It is always difficult to assess program effect in schools because of the multiplicity of contributing factors to student achievement that abound. The final level of the study, however, did compare the test performance of only those students whose teachers had been trained in the program to the test performance of students whose teachers had not been trained and who were in comparable school environments. Student predisposition to testing was controlled to an extent, by removing from the posttest the effects of the pretest and by comparing these adjusted posttest scores as a set of related indices of achievement.

What we were not able to control and examine was the differential degree of training the program teachers had, nor the degree of transfer of the program principles to the classroom setting by the individual teachers included in the study. We know, however, from the teacher and principal interview data and from the follow-up training sessions, that most teachers trained at each of the five schools utilized what they had learned in their Consistency Management sessions. In addition, because all teacher ID numbers were not available, grade by school cell sizes did not allow for comparing student performance at these levels.

Policy Implications

The Consistency Management program which consisted of school and classroom management strategies integrated with instructional methods seemed to provide the conditions for learning to occur. This is consistent with findings by other researchers (see Doyle, 1986; Emmer & Aussiker, 1987; Sanford & Evertson, 1981) who identified the need for a level of order in the school and classroom for learning to occur. The differences in MAT6 performance favored the program students by .3, .1, .2, .2, and .3 standard deviations in language arts, reading, social studies, science, and

mathematics respectively. The implications are that the training for teachers improved student achievement on the MAT-6 by 12 percent, in language arts, 4 percent in reading, 8 percent in social studies, 8 percent in science and 12 percent in mathematics when compared with the control group students.

We can further refine our efforts for the 1988-1989 school year by attending to the missing elements outlined above, as we assess the continuing impact of the training on achievement in follow-up years in the program. The achievement gains reflect the product of extraordinary efforts on the part of teachers and principals in the five schools. However, the process of those efforts are equally important. In addition to the quantitative analysis described in this section of the paper, qualitative data was collected to determine the evolution of the Consistency Management project from the perspective of the five principals and nineteen teachers.

Teacher Interviews

Introduction

Beginning in October of 1987, a series of structured interviews was conducted with each of the five principals and a volunteer sample of teachers. A total of thirty-five teachers from the five schools agreed to be interviewed and four teachers from each school for a total of twenty teachers was selected to reflect the different grade levels from across the five schools. Nineteen teachers were interviewed during the first year. The interviews were conducted by two doctoral students (who are authors on this article) once during the fall of 1987 and again in the spring of 1988 for approximately sixty minutes for each interview. The spring 1988 interview schedules included questions to capture additional information emanating from the fall 1987 responses. A total of forty-seven interviews was conducted during the 1987-1988 school year.

The first structured interviews included demographic background, length of teaching and tenure at the school, reason for being at the school, likes and dislikes about the school, plans for staying or leaving, perceptions of building and facilities, general background information about their students, relations with parents, information about their curriculum in reading language arts, spelling, mathematics and social studies (with a focus on the types of texts and delivery of instruction), previous types of inservice programs, and the transfer of ideas and strategies of inservice programs to their classrooms (including Consistency Management), comparisons between the school beginnings in 1987 and 1986 with a focus on management, and organization, reactions to the Texas Education Agency Accreditation report on their schools, and reactions to their standings on the TEAMS test rankings (being identified as the bottom group) which were reported by the local newspapers. The spring 1988 interviews included questions for new teachers on their adjustment to both the city and the school. Both new and veteran teachers were asked about their continued use of specific strategies they were using as a result of the Consistency Management training. The principal interviews covered the same areas, but added a section on their teachers with a focus on the types of problems teachers bring to them and an assessment of staff morale. The following section summarizes some of the key issues raised by teachers in the interviews.

Response to Texas Education Association Audit

The Texas Education Association (TEA) study resulted from the lowered accreditation of the School District and focused on all the district's schools, not just those in this study. The Texas Educational Assessment of Minimum Skills (TEAMS) results were in part a reason for the audit, but other district-wide factors were included in the accreditation report.

About half of the teachers saw the report as "pretty accurate" and "right on the money on most things." A sense of objectivity was reflected in teacher comments. One reported being "astounded, floored at how efficient and correct they were." Another noted that the report "didn't say anything that wasn't true -- anything we didn't already know." One teacher commented that it "should have been done years ago." The other teachers, however, saw the report as "flawed" or based on opinion. These responses were described by one teacher who stated she "wasn't real thrilled" with the outcome. Confusion was indicated by one teacher who stated "I don't know what they are talking about." Others mentioned that the audit process required more preparation on their part and that it brought about extra pressure and time away from teaching. TEA issued a report in July 1987, which cited a number of factors as causing the low performance in those schools. The areas of concern included the following: 1) unhealthy school climate; 2) lack of cohesive and well focused building level planning; 3) lack of personnel to address the counseling and health needs of students; 4) lack of high expectations for student performance; 5) a need for comprehensive staff development; 6) a need for increased parental and community involvement; and 7) a need for the re-evaluation of library resources and programs.

Response to Texas Educational Assessment of Minimum Skills Scores

The schools in the study had similar scores on the 1986 Texas Educational Assessment of Minimum Skills tests for the first, third, and fifth grades. They scored in the bottom 5% of all elementary schools in Texas and were the bottom five schools in the district. The teachers' reactions to the results were mixed. Disappointment predominated, but optimism was also present in their comments. A majority of the teachers responding saw the test score results as inaccurate, misleading or having a negative impact, while others saw them as beneficial or positive in some way.

Many teachers commented on testing and its impact on the children and the community. Typical responses indicated that the results gave the students the feeling they were losers, that teachers were demoralized in that they were doing well even though the students were not, and that the scores didn't reflect the schools' effectiveness. One teacher added that she didn't like reading about her school in the city-wide daily newspaper. Another set of responses commented on this test, or testing in general. One comment from this group identified problems with paper and pencil tests -- that students don't adjust to them. Another response stated that the TEAMS test was not an accurate reflection of their instruction or that the tests were beyond the students' level. One teacher noted that her "5th graders did pretty good on writing." Another teacher felt the students did well because of her. "I'm into testing," was her explanation.

Another group of comments typified the TEAMS results as indicative of a trend toward improvement. While one noted that "teachers are pushing, progress is made, but scores are still low," another stated "things are looking up."

The final comment related to the TEAMS scores indicated that not all teachers or students were effected by the test. One stated that this was not an issue for her, because her class was not tested. It should be noted that although only half of the grades are tested (grades one, three, and five), all of the teachers had the opportunity to respond to the issue on testing. Although many of the teachers were not directly effected by the test results, all but one commented on them.

The teachers listed many sources they perceived to be pushing to improve the TEAMS scores. Identified most frequently were teachers, the principal, and the district. One described the need for mutual efforts. She explained that teachers, parents, and students need to be involved, that "there needs to be a triangle" of support. Apparently the teachers perceived the impetus to improve coming primarily from

within the local school without much push coming from parents. The teachers identified several reasons for the low test scores. They ranged from the students and their homes to the staff and resignation to the fact that "someone has to be on the bottom." One teacher noted a "lack of administrative direction and support (from the previous principal), a lack of funds, and a lack of staff development" (in previous years). Apparently the teachers were less unified on the reasons for the low scores than they were on the sources to improve them.

Transition

Culture shock is a term which was identified during the 1960's when court ordered busing and teacher transfers were instituted to end racial segregation. Due to the high turnover rates in the district (estimated by a district administrator to be 2,000-3,000 teachers a year) district personnel traveled across the United States to recruit teachers. The transitions from small rural communities in the northern United States where some of the teachers had moved, to a large urban city and a minority school district, presented transitional problems for several of the teachers.

Of the nineteen teachers in the study about half were relatively new to the teaching profession (three years or less), or experienced teachers new to the city. Whether neophytes or veterans with substantial teaching experience in the city or elsewhere, the seventeen teachers who commented, said they had experienced some difficulty, or could empathize with the difficulty, of making the adjustment to the city and to a large urban school district.

Teachers tended to attribute their adjustment difficulties to one of three elements--the city itself, the school and its culture, and the district. Three teachers said that they found the city physically large, with commuting distances an unpleasant new reality. It impacted their traveling time and their personal and professional time.

Some of these teachers also said they felt disoriented by their new environment and wanted time to gain a 'feel' for the city and its services (see Figure 2).

Figure 2

TEACHER EXPERIENCE AND CITY RESIDENCY

	Three or less Years	Four or more Years
Teaching Experience	8	11
City Residency	10 ¹	9

¹Two teachers, one a veteran and one a neophyte, had lived in the city prior to coming to teach in the district.

More often, teachers spoke of their problems in adjusting to the school and the district. Many spoke of accepting a position at a school knowing little about the school's status or population. Five teachers, representing four of the five schools in the study, spoke of their surprise at the culture of the schools and its variance from what they were used to in their former positions. They had had no previous introduction to the socio-economic level of the area, the Black and/or Hispanic culture of their students and the value systems operating in the neighborhoods. One teacher said she had not experienced a Black population and culture in her native Oregon and went on to say, "There is a culture difference in the value system in low income areas." Another said that, had she known in advance of the school's population, she would not have accepted the position at the school.

Nine of the responding teachers also cited the size and nature of the school district. They spoke of the policies and procedures unique to the district, the need to learn a great deal very quickly and the lack of genuine assistance in mastering the intricacies of the district's procedures. To a person, they spoke specifically of the

huge amounts of paperwork called for by the district's procedures. One teacher, coming from a rural community in the northwest, cited the impersonal nature of such a large district. "I like to know whom I'm working for," she said.

The individual schools and the district conduct inservice programs for new teachers. However, due to the realities of hiring faculty, these are held just before the start of the school year, providing little time to assimilate all the material presented before classes actually begin.

A service the district provides its new teachers is a connection to an apartment locator. Some of the teachers reported using that service to find their first residence in the city. The district, however, has no formal relationship with that firm. No teacher stated that she (all the teachers were women) had a problem finding an area in which to live, suggesting that either the locator service was indeed providing a service or that the teachers were able to find housing quite well on their own.

There were some elements which made the transition less difficult. One teacher, not considered among the ten newcomers, had been substitute teaching in the district for several years before taking a full-time position. Of the newcomers, two had lived in Houston previously. Three others were able to point to some kind of peer assistance--one had a relative who was teaching in the the district; two turned to fellow faculty in their school for guidance and support.

When asked what would make the transition easier, fourteen of the seventeen had ready responses. Eight teachers spoke in some fashion of a mentor teacher. They described the mentor as a fellow faculty member in their school who would be assigned to them. The mentor would assume that they knew nothing and would explain all the policies, procedures and routines of the school and the district. "It's

someone I could go to and ask any question and not be made to feel dumb," said one. "They [the district] assume you know everything and you really know nothing."

Three teachers spoke of the need for programs in discipline and classroom management. They cited their lack of preparation for the kinds of discipline problems new teachers face in urban schools. They expressed the need for what one teacher called 'reality therapy,' to enable new teachers to deal with the problems students present, low motivation and low student expectations, lack of parental participation and involvement, appropriate discipline and management techniques. As one teacher put it, "There is nothing in college like courses in discipline management such as Consistency Management and there is a real need for them."

Another spoke of a teacher-directed welcome wagon to help get them oriented to the city. That only one teacher made this comment may suggest that a mentor or buddy might serve in that capacity or that the teachers' first priority is a smooth transition into their school and the district.

Many of the new and younger teachers in these schools took their positions "sight unseen." They knew little of their schools and little of the district and city in which they would be serving. Those who found the move easier, tended to have an already in-place support system. Those who found the move more difficult, were confronted by the large size of the city and the district, the lack of familiarity with the school population's culture and ethos, and the mass of specific requirements coming from the school and the district. Almost universally, they cited a need for a "teacher buddy" to offer help when needed and to be a non-judgmental resource when called upon. The move to a city is difficult, they asserted, and there is little in place to make that move much easier.

Inservice Programs

Inservice programs for teachers abound. The vast majority of these programs are under the sponsorship of the district and may be presented by the district itself, by community organizations, and textbook publishers among others. The individual schools also offer inservice programs for their own faculty. In addition, there are programs for teacher development presented by local universities, regional associations of teaching professionals as well as any number of seminars and programs offered by professionals on general education, specific subject matter, teaching skills and classroom management.

The teachers in the study cited approximately twenty-eight inservice programs which were offered from 1986 to 1988. Some of them dealt with specific content areas such as reading, writing, social sciences, math, creative writing and language. Some dealt with providing professional assistance in such areas as ESL, motivation, counselling, identifying special needs children and Chapter One. Still others presented material on classroom management and discipline.

Virtually all the programs were short, one-time presentations with little or no follow-up or monitoring. When asked what kinds of inservice programs they had had in the past few years, the teachers were often hard-pressed to recall little more than the name of the program or its theme. For all the inservice programs presented, few were considered a success; many were considered a regrettable waste of time. As one teacher put it, "The district inservices you to death."

The teachers were, however, able to identify the characteristics of successful and unsuccessful inservice programs. When asked which inservice programs they would consider successful and why, they offered some specific names and praises. One

inservice, presented by a textbook publishing house, was praised because "they gave lots of freebies." In more general terms, the teachers spoke of programs which held their interest and had an interesting speaker. More than entertaining, the successful program also offered "lots of ideas..." "are practical and have things that I can use" [or] "...teach me how to use the curriculum (in reference to Distar)." Three teachers expressed the same thought when one said succinctly: "In a good program, I learn something new or am reminded of something I learned before."

In various ways, teachers identified unsuccessful programs as being irrelevant to their needs. Some of them spoke of these programs as "not pertinent to my grade level"; "...inappropriate for my class's skill level"; "...badly worded and didn't cover the topic"; [and] "...lacking clear guidelines for implementation." One teacher described an unsuccessful program by saying, "They go on forever" and another as "a waste of time." A third described them as the reverse of a successful program: "I don't learn anything." she said simply.

In general terms, teachers responded well to those inservice programs which addressed specific needs and had an implementable program. They did not value programs which were general in approach or inappropriate to their immediate classroom or professional situation. More than wanting, they needed programs which showed them "what" and "how," with opportunities to see the results of their efforts. In that regard, they were not any different from adult learners in general.

Consistency Management

Faculty participation was consistently high throughout the inservice program. Although voluntary, the principals of the schools were very favorably disposed to the program and encouraged their teachers to attend. In one school, a teacher

attendance chart was posted on a wall in the school hallway. Several teachers expressed their perception that attendance was, in fact, mandatory.

Teachers' initial reaction to the proposed Consistency Management program was not favorable. Of the twelve teachers who commented, three explicitly stated their reluctance to participate in the all-day presentation in the spring of 1987. They resented the time commitment on Saturday or asserted that they had no classroom management problems. After that first session, however, the majority of teachers (75%) came away highly enthusiastic. One rated the session as "exceptionally positive" and another saw Consistency Management as "the answer" to his/her problems. Fully half of all the teachers stated specifically that they had enjoyed the session and had learned a great deal. The district evaluation conducted immediately after the first all day workshop in April returned by 66 participants agreed that the learning was "helpful to current assignments."

As the second component in the fall got underway, teachers' response to the Consistency Management presentations remained high. One teacher, who had been reluctant to participate even in the initial session in the spring, reported that "some teachers speak of skipping sessions, but invariably they attend." Of the nineteen teachers, eighteen (95%) said they had benefitted or learned something new from the sessions; only one teacher expressed only negative comments. Fifteen teachers (79%) gave specific high praise of the program.

Teachers commented favorably on several aspects of the Consistency Management workshops. Some credited the presenter for his teaching methods and attentive responsiveness to their particular situation in at-risk inner-city schools. Others welcomed the use of videotape to convey some of the material. Three teachers said approvingly that the sessions were "more like a college course" because they were

on-going, rather than one-shot presentations. The spacing between the sessions was beneficial, because it allowed for assimilation of the material. It "didn't leave us hanging," so that they could come back to share their experiences of implementation and get additional feedback.

Most teachers lauded the usefulness and applicability of the program to their classroom situations. They noted the program's effect on their students as well as on them as teachers. For themselves, the teachers offered such comments as "the program reminds me to be fair; that I'm not judge and jury..." [it is] "effective immediately" [and] "...very helpful." Several spoke positively of the sessions on learning centers and student grouping. For their students, they described as how it was "motivating..." [and] "...emphasized positive behavior." They recognized that the program was sufficiently generic to be used with any age group, subject matter or learning situation. Five teachers specifically mentioned the emphasis on school-wide consistency and its positive impact on out-of-class behavior such as in the halls, cafeteria and washrooms. One teacher described Consistency Management as "the most useful program I've ever attended." Said another, "I'll use it 'till I retire."

However positive their response to Consistency Management, the teachers were not uncritical participants. Ten of the nineteen teachers also expressed some limitations or concerns. Six commented that the sessions took place after school at the end of a long and tiring day. (It should be noted, however, that teachers also expressed their opposition to sessions scheduled for week-ends.) Five of the ten (some the same and some different) felt that there was too much interaction between participants. As one teacher (who expressed only negative views of the program) put it, "Let's get on with it!" On the other hand, two teachers made specific and positive mention of the interaction among the participants. While three teachers suggested that the tape-analysis session was too time-consuming, two of the three nonetheless affirmed it as

a valuable exercise. Three teachers commented that "too much material was being given out" [and] "...there was a lot of work to do." These three also lamented the lack of modelling or any hands-on activity, although several workshops including the learning center session, had the teachers construct activities for their own centers.

When asked which aspects of the Consistency Management program they would or would not use, most teachers referred to the classroom management techniques. The majority spoke positively of using classroom rules, rewards and consequences. They differed in which specific rewards and consequences procedures they would use. One ECH (Early Childhood Handicapped) teacher, for example, preferred an approach responsive to individual behaviors; regular classroom teachers preferred approaches which were group oriented. Two teachers, however, said that they were reluctant to use a reward system with their classes because they were philosophically opposed to extrinsic rewards.

In the spring follow-up interviews, every teacher, including the philosophically opposed, reported that they had implemented at least one aspect of the Consistency Management program. More, they said that they were continuing to use the program. Seven teachers reported that the program they had implemented in the fall was essentially the same as the one they were using towards the end of the year. Others noted that they had modified their use of the Consistency Management program to accommodate their particular situation. Some alterations in their program included shifting from group rewards to individual rewards, creating different reward schemata, changing the timing of rewards for earlier gratification, and working towards more intrinsic and less extrinsic rewards.

Some teachers expressed a season-oriented concern for ending the Consistency Management presentations in February. The follow-up interviews were conducted

about six weeks after the last of the Consistency Management workshops and at the beginning of spring. It was at this time of the year that some noted the effects of the change in the weather on their students. Two teachers mentioned specifically their need for guidance for end-of-school student behavior and for devices to respond to "spring fever."

Their comments on the results of the program were very impressive. They praised its effects on them and on their students. One said that her use of the program "takes less out of you." Another highlighted the program's positive effects on student attendance. Other teachers spoke of the order and quiet throughout the school and praised the notion that Consistency Management was used by the entire staff. One, whose classroom was located next to a student washroom, said, "Last year, I could hear the noise from the washroom right through the walls. Now I hear nothing. It's wonderful!" Another said that when the school does not use the Consistency Management program in its after-hours activities, "it makes life more difficult." Negative comments, made by five teachers, expressed concern for the use of extrinsic rewards and the need to keep the rewards attractive. Yet even these five were sufficiently persuaded by their experiences of success to maintain the program.

In general, the teachers' initial response to the Consistency Management program was the same as that reserved for many inservice programs--negative. Strong administrative support and an atmosphere of sharing, both of professional expertise as well as of physical nourishment, (food was initially provided by the presenter and later by the teachers themselves for each after-school session) helped to turn that attitude around. What assured the program's success and high acclaim were three additional factors: the presenter was extremely effective in his own right; the ideas in the program made sense, were useful and implementable; and the program worked! The fact that the administration and the teachers continued to use the

program, suggests that Consistency Management breeds its own success for those involved in the learning process.

Parental Influence

Comments related to student/home (partnership) communication were numerous. Nearly all of the teachers made reference to a general or specific strategy for initiating or maintaining contact with the student's home. It should be noted that often times the students are living with relatives in the community rather than at home with their parents. This situation ranges from very temporary, to weekday/weekend variations, to long term residence with grandparents or aunts and uncles. In light of this situation, the association of home, student, and school is an issue of much concern for the teachers and was highlighted in the TEA report.

The teachers offered fifty-seven comments on the school/home partnership, most of which were positive. These responses were fairly well distributed, with at least two teachers in each school contributing to the positive remarks. When asked for strategies that were particularly effective, three trends began to surface (see figure 3). First, teachers identified their efforts at establishing contact with the parents. These would include phone calls, conferences or visits in person, or written notes. One teacher explained that she sent conduct sheets home with students every day. Although this meant extra work, she was certain of its benefit. She commented, "it's a hassle to do daily, but in the long run it pays off." The results are what keeps her in contact with parents and she therefore "doesn't ever have problems with parents." Another teacher explained that this aspect of her teaching was "better this year because I don't have to constantly call to say negative things. I can call or send post cards to say good things." (The post cards were a strategy provided in the training session to increase parent involvement.) Second, the teachers mentioned school

originated efforts to involve parents. These included newsletters, a report card night, and home visits by school representatives among others. Third, a general sense of parental involvement or awareness was mentioned by the teachers. One teacher explained that she "had a lot of contact (with parents), parents need to be involved. Those that are involved have kids that are doing the best. The ones whose parents aren't involved are acting out or are bored." Another teacher provided a valuable insight.

"Parents are more concerned this year than last year. I'm doing a better job this year than last year. I think parents are concerned but don't know how to help. Lots of kids come to school because it's a stabilizing influence."

Those teachers who commented were able to identify the importance of a cohesion between school, teacher, student and home and have apparently set out to establish this bond. As one teacher stated, "This year is better than last year. Parental involvement is being stressed -- it's a matter of consistency."

Figure 3: Effective Home/School Involvement Strategies

Comments	
Teacher Efforts	20 of 44 (45%)
School Efforts	13 of 44 (30%)
Home Involvement	11 of 44 (25%)

Some teachers referred to home/school relations as ineffective. These comments were made by fewer teachers than those making positive comments. Their input was related either to uninvolved parents or weaknesses in school programs designed to establish contact (see figure 4). The Parent Teachers Organization (PTO) and Failsafe (district sponsored parent/teacher conference day) were specifically cited as

needing better support. A teacher mentioned that one parent responded to student behavior problems by stating "I will wup 'em" to which she replied (to the interviewer), "Why take time?" A recent survey conducted by the school district on parents' attitude toward corporal punishment indicated that parents generally support the practice of paddling by the teacher in school.

Figure 4: Ineffective Home / School Involvement Strategies

COMMENTS

Uninvolved Parents	8 of 13 (62%)
Ineffective Programs	5 of 13 (38%)

When asked how communication was initiated between the school and home, the teachers indicated that the process went both ways. About half indicated that the teacher initiated the contact, while others perceived the contact originating from the home, sometimes in reaction to the school's initial contact. The communication was typically due to student concerns, particularly for special education students. The parent initiated contacts related to both problems and praise. One teacher recalled the "shocked delight of parents when *good* news came concerning their child."

Another area of discussion related to the impact of increasing home contacts on the teacher's time. Those responding said it would make their job easier in the long term although more time is expended in the beginning. One of the four said, "I personally think it would make things easier. Children would stay on their P's and Q's when they know their parents are going to be around -- and teachers' too." One teacher had a mixed reaction to the question. "In some ways both. More difficult in that I have to

explain myself later, easier because problems would be handled before an issue arose."

The comments of one teacher help summarize much of what was said regarding school/home involvement. When asked if relations between herself, the school and the home had improved in the past year she responded with the following comments:

"Yes. This year parents seem more concerned with what's going on in the classroom. Previously they were concerned with just conduct. Now the concern is more with academics. This change has to do with the principal, more parent/teacher league meetings, and the fact that parents are more aware of what is going on."

Good Days and Bad Days

In the follow-up interviews conducted during the spring of 1988, teachers were asked to describe a good day and a bad day. The questions were posed in order to solicit some thought as to what it was they did and to seek out a correlation, if any, between the Consistency Management program and their sense of success as teachers.

Most teachers described a good day and a bad day in terms of the students' behavior. For virtually all of them, it was the first thing mentioned. Thirteen teachers spoke of students' being attentive and behaving in class. In contrast, there were any number of short statements which conveyed a bad day: "spitballs," "kids playing disruptive games," "tattling on each other or just causing trouble."

Once behavior would be under control, teachers then spoke of good and bad days in terms of academics. Fourteen teachers described a good day as one when they were able to meet their teaching agenda, when the students were responsive, were on task, and making academic progress. One teacher described a good day when "...the students are learning and their minds are clicking." Bad days were those when

management issues overcrowded academic issues. One teacher, in fact, described a bad day as one "when I do more managing than teaching." In contrast, another described her good days as those when "I only see the secretary from the office," implying that her bad days involved discipline problems, meetings with counsellors and the principal, and little teaching. Issues such as administrative paperwork and not having time to correct students' work also tended to mar the teachers' expectations for a successful day.

In essence, then, good days were those when teachers had management issues safely and securely under control and could get down to the real business of teaching. Bad days were those when classroom management issues--discipline problems and misbehavior--ran unreined, and the teacher simply couldn't teach. The teachers themselves were saying that their first priority was order; after that, teaching and learning could occur.

Unsolicited Comments

Some of the most revealing information resulted from unsolicited comments by the teachers. Concerns about staff relationships were not initiated by the interviewers, yet thirty-five comments were recorded in response to these issues. Although there was a relative balance between positive (16) and negative (19) comments, they differed in nature, distribution, and location.

Positive comments were made by twelve of the nineteen teachers interviewed, with only one teacher offering as many as three. The comments were quite evenly spread among four of the schools, with one school not represented by either positive or negative comments. Typically, these remarks were general, reflecting a global sense of well-being among the teachers. Descriptions focused on the quality of the faculty, such as, "good faculty," "good staff," "teachers were good," and staff relationships,

such as, "staff is friendly," "teachers try to work together," and "I like the people I work with." Some comments also described a sense of mission, such as, "willing to help each other to improve school's ranking," and "faculty doesn't want to be a part of a low scoring school."

Areas of concern were made by nine teachers (two teachers had positive comments and concerns). In contrast to the more global positive comments, these raised some specific issues. Several noted the impact of teacher turnover, such as "transience of staff is a problem," "high staff turnover contributes to low scores," and "major change in faculty in the last three years." Race was also mentioned in teacher remarks. A typical issue was, "feelings of being isolated as a white on faculty." Teacher commitment was also identified as an area of concern. Representative comments included, "resentment of teachers who don't participate," "not all teachers want it (teaching) to be a cooperative effort," and "we have people here who are teachers, but not really, deep down." The benefit of collegiality was noted by one teacher who commented on faculty-wide Consistency Management inservices which were held for the faculty during the summer and after-school activity. For her it was one of the few times that they "all got to see each other and relate to each other."

Policy Implications

By the teachers' own admission, their sense of success and failure depended first on their ability to maintain classroom discipline and manage their students' behavior. Nothing positive of consequence could take place without that first priority being met. Teachers also declared that their own training, and often their own extensive experience, ill prepared them for the unique classroom management tasks associated with teaching minority children in inner-city at-risk schools. Inner-city schools

are a category unto themselves requiring special expertise and awareness on the part of the teacher to meet the greater needs of the children.

One issue that arises as a consequence of this study is the process of integrating new teachers into a school district and a school. Novice or veteran, teachers find the move to a new teaching situation difficult. Each district has its own policies, procedures and personnel hierarchies and while they may be second nature to those in-place, they are bewildering to the newcomer. When that newcomer is confronted by a move to a new city, especially a major metropolitan center, there are other disorienting factors which have to be taken into account.

Districts ought to take the nature of dislocation and relocation of teachers much more seriously. cursory programs immediately before the beginning of classes are apparently inadequate to meet the enormity of the problem teachers face. More, issues present themselves well into the school year with teachers left to their own devices. The teachers themselves expressed a desire for some kind of buddy system within the school to assist new teachers in their adjustments to the district. Clearly, some kind of non-threatening and non-judgmental staffing needs to be arranged. Teachers have to get the answers they need without their ignorance showing up on their professional evaluations. The schools and the district need to support their teachers in such a way that their own procedures and policies are followed for everyone's benefit and protection. It should be noted, the district has piloted in 1988 an induction program for 400-500 new teachers which may meet many of the concerns expressed by the new teachers in this study.

A second issue is the need for adequate teacher preparation for service in inner-city at-risk schools. Teacher education programs in the colleges of education in which these new teachers received their training, have failed to meet their needs in

providing concrete strategies for managing both students and instruction. High teacher mobility resulting from limited teaching opportunities in mostly northern school districts and teaching vacancies in mostly southern and western school districts, presents serious challenges to teacher training institutions. It is evident from this study that teacher education programs need to provide all teacher candidates with managerial, instructional and multi-cultural and ethnic strategies that are generic to all geographic regions of the nation.

Additionally, the one time inservices that occur prior to the opening of school and focus on administrative and procedural matters need also to provide an understanding of the ethos and culture of their school, its clientele and its neighborhood. They also need to provide the teachers with the practical management tools for effectiveness, both in the classroom and in the school as a whole.

Not only do the teachers and the students in inner-city at-risk schools need such programs, teachers seem to function better when they are given such programs. Teachers' responses and evaluations of inservice programs in this study validate the research in general on adult education programs. They want practical ideas, easily implemented, with fairly immediate and dramatic results as corroboration of success. They value their time and resent demands being laid upon them where their concerns will not be addressed.

In addition, the success of the Consistency Management program supports the desirability of inservice programs which are ongoing and continuous. Ongoing inservice program tells the teachers that there is abiding concern on the part of presenters, district personnel and school administrators to increase effectiveness and assure the teachers' success. Ongoing inservices establish goals and priorities

for the school and for the teachers over a longer period of time, giving them specific and measurable objectives. They provide time for the content to be conveyed, assimilated, implemented and evaluated. Rather than doing a lot of things superficially, planners of inservice programs should consider focusing on a few areas over the long-term. In fairness to school districts, some one-time inservice programs are functions of state or federal mandates and reduce the opportunities for district or school based inservice programs.

Principal Interviews

Introduction

The principals present a bi-model distribution of administrative experiences. Two principals had five or more years experience as administrators and only one principal had been at the current school more than three years. The five principals are Black females and have approximately a twenty year age span from the youngest to the oldest. Three of the five principals' ethnicity reflect the majority race in their schools while two of the principals have majority Hispanic student populations. Four of the five principals were new to their schools in 1986. The following is a summary of principal comments drawn from interviews conducted between November 1987 and February 1988 and from follow-up interviews conducted between April and May 1988.

Consistency Management

A primary concern for the principals was order and discipline in the school. The high mobility rates of the students (34%-75%) and the turnover rate (10%-25%) for the teachers contributed to a lack of order. This is compounded when teachers leave after a few months or in the middle of the year. The current principal at Adams

Elementary, which had 276 students in 1986-1987, was acting in the role of assistant to the principal who had responsibility for two small elementary schools. A total of 109 students were sent to the office by classroom teachers for discipline referrals. The principal described a scene where the office had so many students waiting for her to be disciplined that they were sitting two or three to a chair, on the floor and lined up in the hallway. In addition to referrals to the office, 34 letters were sent home warning parents of suspension and 24 students were sent home for one or two days until their parent(s) could meet with the principal. The school also tried an in-school suspension center without much improvement in discipline.

One year later (1987-1988) 19 students were referred to the office for discipline of which nine were sent by substitute teachers. One letter was sent home for a fight after school and no students were sent home. In 1987-88 the principal indicated that the teachers were able to handle their own discipline problems, rarely involving the principal. She credited the Consistency Management program for this change. Without it, she said, "I would not have survived." The impact of the program on disciplinary referrals was a common theme for the schools. At Monroe Elementary the principal, when asked about referrals in May of 1988 stated: "I still haven't seen many kids. I bet I haven't seen 14 lads this year, last year I saw 62." The other schools also indicated a reduction in discipline referrals to the office. The principal from Thomas Jefferson stated that, "Last year we needed more help with discipline. Now we are doing very well and can move beyond that. ...As we become more skilled in Consistency Management we can move into alternative instructional strategies."

The principals said the teachers viewed the program as positive. A theme which was expressed by all the principals in the interviews was the need for teachers to acquire tools for dealing with a range of student behaviors. The principal at John Adams stated the program provided a clear plan throughout the school for discipline and

gave the teachers strategies for discipline, making the teachers responsible for their students' behavior and removing her from the role of disciplinarian. "I am not a policeman!" she asserted. This term was stated exactly by two other principals in meetings which were held during the lunch hour.

Another theme that was expressed in the principal interviews and with the teachers was the need for a support system when the training program ended. The last session for the teachers was in February of 1988 and each of the principals talked about the need for a spring session. One principal commented, "More of a support system was needed in place after the end of the workshops, perhaps to focus in on what's happening at the end of the year." Another said, "I would like to see the (inservice) program ongoing through the year..."

Parental Involvement

Each of the principals discussed their concerns and efforts related to parental involvement. The programs to involve parents included the following:

- 1) Technology week. The parents would learn about computers with their children in the classroom during the day and on Saturday.
- 2) Report card night. The school asked the parents to come and pick up the child's report card and meet the teachers. One school had 60 percent of the parents attend.
- 3) Newsletters. This form of communication was sent home with the students and had stories by the students from each grade level and brief articles from the teachers from each grade level.
- 4) Language classes for non-English speaking parents. In the two schools with Spanish speaking parents, the classes made the school a friendly place to

attend and enabled parents to communicate with their children on their school work.

- 5) Shell II. The Shell Oil company sponsored a series of math and science programs held on Saturday for both the parents and their children. Children could not attend unless an adult was with them.
- 6) Incentive programs. A series of positive activities included:
 - a) Positive post cards home. The teachers were asked to begin communicating with parents about the good attributes of their children. Positive post cards were sent to the parents or guardians about a specific academic or behavior accomplishment.
 - b) Certificates to the parent(s). Parents would receive certificates styled to them for achievement of their children.
- 7) Festival Activities. Each of the schools had events where food was served and the community was invited.
- 8) PTO. Each of the schools worked at establishing or improving formal parent organizations.

One of the lessons learned from parental and to a lesser extent community involvement is that one approach will not involve all the parents. Each segment will involve some parents; but combined, the different parental and community strategies will increase the total involvement in the school. Having parents and other community members involved in the schools establishes an important role model for the students and lets the students know that school is important.

Good Days and Bad Days

Each of the principals was asked to describe a good and bad day. The common threads were evident in their responses. The following is a representative sample of their

comments. "Teachers are teaching; students are learning and things are getting accomplished." "A bad day is when a child had a problem I can't find a solution to ... when paper work is due and I can't get to the problems. I'm a people person." A good day -- "I don't have a lot of messages to respond to... I'm able to visit classes without interruptions... The kids are in control of their behavior... Teachers are enthusiastic, the students show that they are learning and they're highly motivated... Parents express concerns for problem solving... Working relationships are positive and warm."

Two of the principals talked about the positive changes in climate and particularly that the presenter brought food for inservice sessions which became part of the school norm for all faculty meetings. There are several points that have emerged about the Consistency Management Program from the ten principal interviews which are summarized in the following.

Key Points from the Principals

- 1) Referrals were reduced by the program from 1987 to 1988.
- 2) Principals perceived that teachers viewed the program as positive and working.
- 3) They expressed concerns about the program ending in February and identified the need to continue the program until the end of the year and particularly after spring break.
- 4) They viewed this inservice as the most effective due to the long term nature of the program and the results seen by the principals in the office and in the observations in the classroom.
- 5) The principals viewed the program initially as discipline only but have seen the relationship between management and instruction.

- 6) The program has evolved over the past year.
- 7) The April and summer workshops had the most impact, but the continuation was also important for consistency. Although all teachers did not attend the sessions, there was carry-over. The food for the inservice sessions for example continued with other school-related meetings. Teachers were sharing ideas with each other.

The principals also commented on other areas of their school improvement activities.

- 1) Community efforts have improved but not at the level the principals feel is necessary for strong parental involvement.
- 2) The Shell II program which was in two of the five schools provided an excellent link between home and school. Two other schools began special classes for parents in English. Inviting parents into the schools for computer/technology and weekend report card night was very successful.
- 3) The principals don't want to be "policemen" or paper pushers. They expressed the need to spend more time in the classrooms and interacting positively with students.
- 4) The building concerns were high for four of the principals. They felt their facilities were neglected until they came. An effort was made to make the place safe and attractive. Space is a problem with all of the buildings. There is either not enough space or it's poorly designed for current needs. (Note: A bond issue was passed in March of 1989 to renovate all the schools in the district).
- 5) Status as a 5% (Reach) school was initially very negative but the added resources from the district and school-based changes have turned a negative situation into a positive one.

Policy Implications

There are numerous implications from the perspective of the principals in this study. The concepts of school-based management was an unspoken theme which emerged from the principal interviews. The five principals in defining their good and bad days emphasized the need to be out of the office and in the classrooms. Providing resources to the schools and developing strategies with their teachers to improve achievement were their primary objectives.

Parental involvement in communities where students may be living with grandparents, other relatives or in dysfunctional families, presents serious problems in the partnership each of the principals identified as necessary for educational improvement. The strategies used by the principals and teachers represented a layered approach to parent involvement. One strategy may increase parent involvement by 5 percent but the implementation of several strategies could boost that involvement to forty or fifty percent. The use of classroom strategies (e.g., positive post cards home and telephone calls for positive home contacts at the beginning of the year) combined with school wide strategies (e.g., report card night, and technology week) increased the opportunities for parents to become aware and supportive of their children's education.

Rather than looking for one strategy to solve all the problems, it is evident from the interviews that the principals are looking for a multidimensional approach to effective schooling.

Half-Life Factors of Improving Schools

It is not just the students who are at-risk of failing, but the schools which provide a safety net between what may be a bleak and difficult existence and a hopeful and

productive future. The half-life factors of improving schools represent a concept that describes the decay which eats away at extraordinary efforts to improve the learning environment of students. As long as the community and families' needs are not being met, then extraordinary efforts will be necessary to maintain a level of equilibrium to continue the improvement efforts. Once a school begins to improve and exceeds the criteria for its students being at-risk, district supports may begin to be removed and redistributed to other newly identified at-risk schools (Frechtling, 1987; Freiberg, 1989). Within a relatively short period of time, the school begins to be at-risk of not sustaining the delicate equilibrium and safety net that provides a climate of growth and learning for students and their teachers. Given limited resources, the funding for extra supplies or specialized staff development is withdrawn and moved to another set of "at-risk" students and schools. The improving efforts begin to decay as the teachers and administrators see both intangible and tangible supports being removed. Add to the withdrawal of support, the attrition of teachers and the high mobility rates of students, the school becomes "at-risk" again, in need of new interventions. Preventing decay in school improvement efforts may require sustaining support for as long as home and community conditions create students who are at-risk of failure in schools and society.

Conclusions

Improving the effectiveness of urban schools in the 1990s will require a more intensive and systematic approach to the needs of urban youth. The problems today are more complex and the solutions need to be multidimensional rather than unidimensional. The resources provided by the district to these five at-risk schools have enabled them to turn the corner and create a positive learning environment for the students and orderly and supportive working environment for the teachers and administrators.

In response to the first workshop, over twenty written comments on the district's evaluation related to teacher requests for continuance of the program during the summer. As one teacher stated in the comments section, "...please don't leave us hanging." Veteran teachers have seen innovations come and go and they realize (through their comments) the importance of long term staff development which meets their needs. The school district in this study under the leadership of a new superintendent, has made a clear commitment to making the schools a bridge to personal and academic success for all students.

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APPENDIX A

Table 1
DEMOGRAPHICS
 1986-87 School Year

Sch & Dist.	* Ethnicity %			Enrollment	Free/Reduced	Mobility %	Attendance %	+ %Above	-% Below
	B	H	O	(N)	Lunch%			Gr. Lvl.	Gr. Lvl.
PROGRAM SCHOOLS									
Washington 10	96	03	01	517	98	32	95	57	07
Adams 12	36	57	07	276	88	75	96	28	21
Jefferson 4	100	0	0	499	74	30	97	51	15
Madison 4	99	0	01	516	70	55	95	55	10
Monroe 14	43	30	27	774	85	49	96	59	08
COMPARISON SCHOOLS									
Able 10	75	23	01	826	98	62	94	61	09
Baker 12	37	63	0	265	97	44	98	74	02
Charles 4	100	0	0	630	84	41	95	51	11
Dillon 4	99	1	0	1288	97	53	95	48	14
Edward 14	25	39	36	408	57	45	96	60	14

Note: Program and Comparison School Names are Pseudonyms

*BI = Black
 His = Hispanic
 Oth = Other (American
 Indian, Asian, &
 White)

+/- Above or Below
 grade level on the
 ITBS Composite

Table 2
TEACHER INFORMATION

	Teachers	Black	Hispanic	White	Other	Masters	Years of Teaching Experience			Attendance	Ratio
							0-3	4-10	11+		
Washington	33	58%	0%	42%	0%	42%	45%	18%	36%	93%	24.3:1
Adams	20	48%	15%	40%	0%	20%	60%	25%	15%	96%	22.3:1
Jefferson	32	50%	0%	50%	0%	9%	41%	31%	28%	93%	22.1:1
Madison	27	63%	0%	37%	0%	33%	33%	26%	41%	95%	23.8:1
Monroe	36	39%	19%	39%	3%	36%	28%	14%	58%	96%	17.2:1

From: District and School Profiles, 1987-1988

TABLE 3

George Washington Elementary
Percent Passing TEAMS, 1986 and 1988

1987-88	Grade	Content Area	1985-86*	1987-88	% Change	<u>Mean Scaled Score</u>		Paired "t" Value
						1985-86	1987-88	
3 (n=59)		Math	70	92	22	783	801	1.09
		Reading	53	56	3	699	716	1.05
		Writing	71	72	1	744	735	-0.49
5 (n=40)		Math	65	60	-5	723	728	0.41
		Reading	60	73	13	747	727	-1.39
		Writing	18	80	62	645	756	6.23**

John Adams Elementary
Percent Passing TEAMS, 1986 and 1988

1987-88	Grade	Content Area	1985-86*	1987-88	% Change	<u>Mean Scaled Score</u>		Paired "t" Value
						1985-86	1987-88	
3 (n=21)		Math	38	57	19	473	687	3.45**
		Reading	29	48	19	398	639	3.50**
		Writing	33	52	19	479	679	3.31**
5 (n=20)		Math	60	60	0	710	683	-1.86
		Reading	45	70	25	696	718	1.11
		Writing	40	65	25	648	684	1.16

Thomas Jefferson Elementary
Percent Passing TEAMS, 1986 and 1988

1987-88	Grade	Content Area	1985-86*	1987-88	% Change	<u>Mean Scaled Score</u>		Paired "t" Value
						1985-86	1987-88	
3 (n=50)		Math	84	84	0	790	820	1.61
		Reading	78	82	4	756	776	1.16
		Writing	80	76	-4	765	758	-0.40
5 (n=35)		Math	57	83	26	700	788	3.81**
		Reading	43	74	31	690	723	2.20**
		Writing	66	66	0	713	704	-0.55

Table 3
James Madison Elementary
Percent Passing TEAMS, 1986 and 1988

1987-88 Grade	Content Area	1985-86*	1987-88	% Change	<u>Mean Scaled Score</u>		Paired "t" Value
					1985-86	1987-88	
3 (n=42)	Math	81	88	7	816	815	-0.02
	Reading	64	69	5	769	745	-1.30
	Writing	76	71	-5	767	750	-1.02
5 (n=50)	Math	40	62	22	666	720	4.43**
	Reading	40	58	18	671	698	2.41**
	Writing	24	64	40	612	728	6.20**

James Monroe Elementary
Percent Passing TEAMS, 1986 and 1988

1987-88 Grade	Content Area	1985-86*	1987-88	% Change	<u>Mean Scaled Score</u>		Paired "t" Value
					1985-86	1987-88	
3 (n=40)	Math	40	75	35	451	755	6.22**
	Reading	28	60	32	372	715	7.56**
	Writing	33	43	10	471	674	4.92**
5 (n=39)	Math	56	72	16	695	720	1.42
	Reading	59	62	3	683	701	0.91
	Writing	33	67	34	623	704	3.80**

* Based on third graders first grade scores and the fifth graders third grade scores in 1986.

** Significant, 0.05 alpha level.

APPENDIX B

TABLE I

DEMOGRAPHIC COMPARISON OF PROGRAM AND NON-PROGRAM SCHOOLS
Based on 1985-86 Data

	TOTAL ENROLLMENT	ETHNICITY*			FREE/REDUCED LUNCH percent	MOBILITY percent	ATTENDANCE percent	ACHIEVEMENT*		ADMINISTRATIVE AREA
		BI Percent	His Percent	Oth Percent				Above Percent	Below Percent	
Washgton	517	96	3	1	98	32	95	57	7	10
Comparison	826	75	23	1	98	62	94	61	9	10
School										
Adams	276	36	57	7	88	75	96	28	21	12
Comparison	265	37	63	0	97	44	98	74	2	12
School										
Jefferson	499	100	0	0	74	30	97	51	15	4
Comparison	630	100	0	0	84	41	95	51	11	4
School										
Madison	516	99	0	1	70	55	95	55	10	4
Comparison	1288	99	1	0	97	53	95	48	14	4
School										
Monroe	774	43	30	27	85	49	96	59	8	14
Comparison	408	25	39	36	57	45	96	60	14	14
School										

*BI = Black
His = Hispanic
Oth = Other (American
Indian, Asian, &
White)

*Above or Below
grade level on the
ITBS Composite

Table 2
TEAMS MEAN SCALE SCORE
Matched Students

		Math				Reading				Writing			
		1 - 3		3 - 5		1 - 3		3 - 5		1 - 3		3 - 5	
PROGRAM SCHOOLS													
Washington	88	817.96	N	736.36		750.20	N	746.91	N	742.62	N	775.84	N
	86	787.45	(59)	726.89	(46)	706.62	(59)	770.47	(46)	734.00	(59)	656.63	(46)
Adams	88	726.36		730.90		675.45		766.55		721.81		753.90	
	86	769.72	(11)	743.90	(20)	668.00	(11)	731.55	(20)	681.00	(11)	680.70	(20)
Jefferson	88	855.17		802.17		801.31		743.61		776.33		739.46	
	86	801.02	(45)	699.69	(39)	773.06	(45)	695.35	(39)	754.44	(45)	700.02	(39)
Madison	88	808.29		737.15		755.15		724.77		747.63		737.55	
	86	833.97	(44)	680.53	(45)	760.11	(44)	674.88	(45)	786.04	(44)	625.93	(45)
Monroe	88	802.86		799.87		750.17		783.53		698.10		767.34	
	86	779.41	(29)	732.42	(47)	865.51	(29)	730.74	(47)	762.75	(29)	654.14	(47)
COMPARISON SCHOOLS													
Able	88	707.01		754.80		680.37		741.70		645.52		709.11	
	86	779.27	(59)	695.21	(51)	769.74	(59)	712.84	(51)	774.25	(59)	691.27	(51)
Baker	88	791.82		787.05		769.34		771.65		751.08		711.40	
	86	849.21	(23)	796.40	(20)	722.65	(23)	757.35	(20)	734.95	(23)	690.80	(20)
Charles	88	762.25		730.61		708.62		728.50		710.32		683.90	
	86	791.86	(58)	679.36	(52)	752.96	(58)	683.57	(52)	788.79	(52)	653.88	(52)
Dillon	88	728.57		696.64		704.88		728.84		686.4		670.79	
	86	808.23	(122)	661.71	(111)	731.72	(122)	690.18	(111)	726.4	(122)	668.31	(111)
Edward	88	796.82		813.26		782.85		815.36		735.60		814.56	
	86	794.42	(35)	778.43	(30)	768.25	(35)	742.03	(30)	735.60	(35)	713.83	(30)

Table 3

DIFFERENCE IN TEAMS MEAN SCALE SCORE
1988-1986 Matched Students

	<u>Math</u>		<u>Reading</u>		<u>Writing</u>	
	3 - 1	5 - 3	3 - 1	5 - 3	3 - 1	5 - 3
PROGRAM SCHOOLS						
Washington	30.51	9.47	43.58	-23.56	8.62	119.21
Adams	-44.36	-13.00	7.45	35.00	40.81	73.20
Jefferson	54.15	102.48	28.25	48.26	21.89	39.44
Madison	-25.68	56.52	-4.96	49.89	-38.41	111.62
Monroe	22.65	67.45	64.66	52.79	-28.65	113.20
COMPARISON SCHOOLS						
Able	-72.26	59.59	-89.37	28.86	-128.73	17.84
Baker	-57.39	-9.35	46.69	14.30	16.13	20.60
Charles	-29.61	51.25	-44.34	44.93	-78.47	30.02
Dillon	-79.66	34.93	-26.84	38.66	-40.00	2.48
Edward	2.40	34.83	14.60	73.33	-90.00	100.73

Table 4
TEAMS AGGREGATE MEAN SCALE SCORE
Non-matched Students (nij) (SSij)*

PROGRAM SCHOOLS				COMPARISON SCHOOLS			
	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88		1985-86	1986-87	1987-88
Washington	598.4	702.5	755.7	Able	614.7	691.9	690.7
Adams	582.5	713.4	711.7	Baker	636.3	761.0	737.3
Jeffeson	600.1	734.5	783.0	Charles	614.6	718.2	744.4
Madison	611.7	726.4	766.5	Dillon	593.6	692.9	716.3
Monroe	618.1	741.1	771.2	Edward	634.6	789.2	787.2

*where nij = # who took TEAMS subtest(i) in grade(j) SSij = mean scale score for subtest(i) grade(j)

Table 5
TEAMS AGGREGATE % PASSING
Matched Students Pij* nij

PROGRAM SCHOOLS			COMPARISON SCHOOLS		
	1985-86	1987-88		1985-86	1987-88
Washington	58.3%	80.2%	Able	64.8%	55.2%
Adams	58.1%	73.1%	Baker	73.8%	80.5%
Jefferson	68.3%	82.6%	Charles	61.8%	61.4%
Madison	56.6%	70.8%	Dillon	57.6%	54.5%
Monroe	60.9%	78.0%	Edward	71.3%	79.9%
TOTAL	60.6%	78.0%	TOTAL	62.7%	60.9%

*where Pij = # of passers for subtest(i) grade(j) nij = # of took subted(i) grade(j)

Table 6
1985-86 TEAMS
% Passing
Non-matched Students

	<u>PROGRAM SCHOOLS</u>									<u>COMPARISON SCHOOLS</u>									
	<u>Reading</u>			<u>Writing</u>			<u>Math</u>				<u>Reading</u>			<u>Writing</u>			<u>Math</u>		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3		1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Washgton	38	55	54	53	19	31	60	54	36	Able	54	36	70	66	28	56	63	31	71
Adams	30	33	45	30	27	40	60	53	40	Baker	48	63	77	63	34	43	85	68	71
Jefferson	68	31	59	64	49	48	62	37	51	Charles	65	36	60	75	26	41	67	39	62
Madison	61	36	63	68	23	48	76	41	58	Dillon	48	44	62	55	31	36	67	34	48
Monroe	51	46	69	64	29	52	70	44	59	Edward	64	45	66	77	43	25	80	55	64

Table 7
1985-86 TEAMS
Mean Scale Score
Non-Matched Students

	<u>PROGRAM SCHOOLS</u>									<u>COMPARISON SCHOOLS</u>									
	<u>Reading</u>			<u>Writing</u>			<u>Math</u>				<u>Reading</u>			<u>Writing</u>			<u>Math</u>		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3		1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Washington	654	720	709	690	626	655	749	705	681	Able	719	665	743	721	629	696	737	646	730
Adams	627	673	678	631	618	635	735	684	666	Baker	699	702	678	701	651	663	811	741	731
Jefferson	720	652	708	727	673	681	738	655	698	Charles	721	654	724	756	623	676	748	653	719
Madison	728	669	726	732	603	674	789	670	704	Dillon	690	724	682	682	656	654	753	652	687
Monroe	712	675	731	737	613	672	758	679	707	Edward	738	700	741	778	666	629	770	741	744

APPENDIX C

TABLE I

GRADE DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLES
of Students Per Grade

	TWO	THREE	FOUR	FIVE	TOTAL
Washington	-	35	18	-	53
Comparison School	-	32	18	-	50
Adams	9	10	15	-	34
Comparison School	4	10	15	-	29
Jefferson	51	30	29	16	126
Comparison School	44	27	22	13	106
Madison	27	14	19	50	110
Comparison School	27	14	19	50	110
Monroe	20	-	-	21	41
Comparison School	20	-	-	20	40
Total Program School	107	89	81	87	364
Total Comparison School	95	83	74	83	335

A dash (-) indicates that there are no students for that grade included in the study

TABLE II

	STUDENT			SAMPLE
	BLACK	ETHNICITY HISPANIC	OTHER	FREE/REDUCED LUNCH
		PERCENT		PERCENT
PROGRAM STUDENTS	90	80	2	72
NON-PROGRAM STUDENTS	85	9	6	79

TABLE III
PRE-, POST-, AND ADJUSTED POSTTEST MEAN NCE'S ON MAT6
Grades 2, 3, 4, & 5

		OBSERVED PRETEST MEANS	OBSERVED POSTTEST MEANS	ADJUSTED POSTTEST MEANS
TOTAL LANGUAGE				
	PROGRAM	48.3	53.1	52.4
	NON-PROGRAM	46.7	46.3	47.1
TOTAL READING				
	PROGRAM	42.2	43.6	42.8
	NON-PROGRAM	40.7	40.0	40.8
SOCIAL STUDIES				
	PROGRAM	40.6	47.2	46.6
	NON-PROGRAM	39.1	41.6	42.3
SCIENCE				
	PROGRAM	40.7	47.3	46.5
	NON-PROGRAM	38.3	42.9	43.7
TOTAL MATHEMATICS				
	PROGRAM	51.2	55.1	54.0
	NON-PROGRAM	48.2	46.7	47.8

TABLE IV

PRE-, POST-, AND ADJUSTED POSTTEST MEAN Z-SCORES ON TEAMS
Grades 3 & 5

		OBSERVED PRETEST MEANS		OBSERVED POSTTEST MEANS		ADJUSTED POSTTEST MEANS	
WRITING	PROGRAM	-.06140	(735.1)	.30238	(781.2)	.32088	(783.3)
	NON-PROGRAM	.06230	(741.6)	-.30684	(726.3)	-.32560	(724.2)
READING	PROGRAM	-.06093	(712.5)	.04032	(734.5)	.07182	(737.2)
	NON-PROGRAM	.06183	(728.0)	-.04091	(726.8)	-.07187	(724.1)
MATHEMATICS	PROGRAM	-.03252	(705.9)	.23218	(761.9)	.25464	(763.8)
	NON-PROGRAM	.03300	(717.2)	-.23559	(689.9)	-.25838	(688.0)

Mean scale scores are provided in () for information only

Program n = 176

Non-program n = 166